

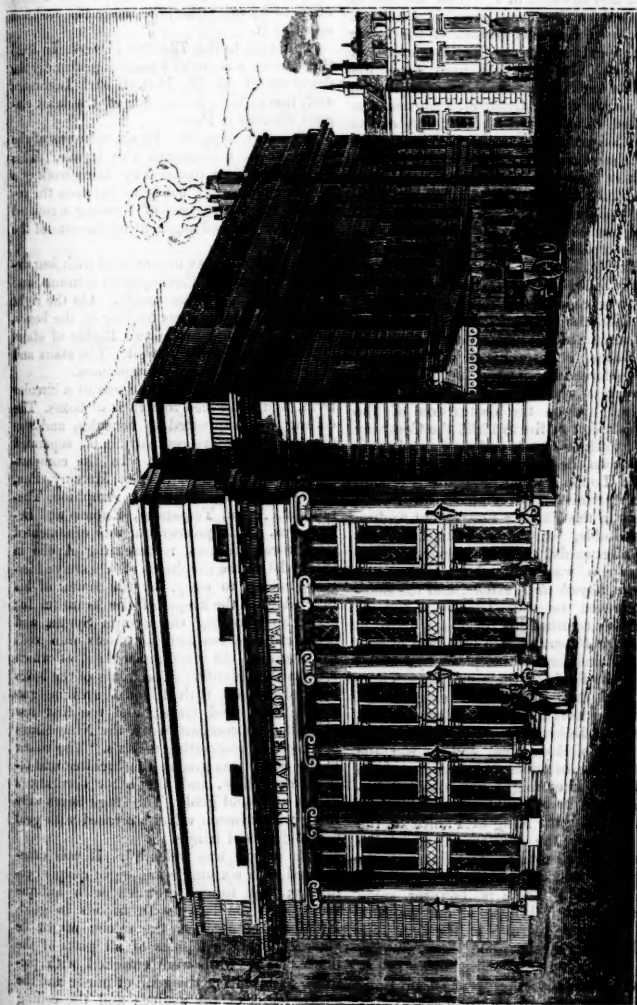
# The Mirror

OF  
LITERATURE, AMUSEMENT, AND INSTRUCTION.

No. 877.]

SATURDAY, FEBRUARY 3, 1838.

[Price 2d.]



THE ITALIAN OPERA-HOUSE, PARIS.

Vol. XXXI.

F

### THE ITALIAN OPERA-HOUSE, PARIS.

THIS commodious theatre having recently been destroyed by fire, its origin and architectural character become matters of interest in "the chronicle of the times."\*

The building of the Italian Opera-house, called the *Théâtre Favart*, was commenced in 1782 and finished in 1783, on the site of the ancient hotel of the Duke de Choiseul. It occupies the greater portion of the *Place des Italiens*, adjoining the Boulevard of that name. Its principal front faces the *Place*, its back being towards the Boulevard, a position which the architect, Heurtier, was compelled to adopt by the Company of the day, who fearing they might be confounded with the strollers of the Boulevards, insisted upon there being no frontage that way.

At several successive periods, Italian companies performed at Paris; but they were either dispersed by civil broils, or united with French companies, and abandoned the Italian opera for the French. Comic operas were performed in the above theatre till 1797, when these representations were transferred to the *Théâtre Feydeau*, and the *Théâtre Favart* remained for a time untenanted. In 1802, Buonaparte established a company of Italian performers at Paris; but, with indifferent success, and they soon abandoned the enterprise. Upon the destruction of the *Théâtre Odéon* by fire in 1799, the Company removed to the *Favart*, and performed there till their own theatre was rebuilt. Upon the return of Louis XVIII., Madame Catalani obtained permission to establish an Italian Company in the *Théâtre Favart*, but finding it unprofitable, she soon relinquished it. Shortly afterwards, the management of the Italian opera was annexed to that of the *Académie Royale de Musique*, and the Company removed to the *Théâtre Louvois*: whence they returned in November, 1825, to the *Théâtre Favart*, which had been altered and embellished for their reception, by Charles X., from the funds of the civil list. These repairs and decorations were elegant and tasteful, and were made under the administration of the Duke de Doudeauville, minister of the King's Household, and his son, the Viscount de Larochehoucauld, Director of the Fine Arts. They might have been considered as a present of 2,000,000 or 3,000,000 francs, made by the King of France to the capital, to favour the development and the progress of Italian music. In vain, we may look for such encouragement of the liberal arts in England. There is, however, some hope in the musical taste of our youthful Queen, if the purse-strings of the Civil List be not drawn too tightly. On the continent, theatres are universally appurtenances to palaces; and, formerly, they were so in Eng-

\* The prefixed Engraving is from Pugin's clever Views of Paris.

land. But, in Buckingham Palace there is no theatre; and "state bands" are but stingy substitutes. Perchance, some musical minister may hereafter seek relief from the discord of politics, in patronizing for us a national opera. Sheridan was, perhaps, the only statesman in our time who took cognizance of such matters; and he made but a sorry affair of it, or, rather, he made his creditors sorry for it.

To return to the *Théâtre Favart*. In 1825 the interior was entirely re-arranged under the direction of M. M. Hiltorff and Lecoq; and, thenceforth, it was one of the most elegant theatres in Paris.

A portico, supported by six columns of the Ionic order, ornamented the façade. This portico had been inclosed by frame-work of a bronze colour, with windows between the columns, for the purpose of forming a covered gallery below, and augmenting the size of the saloon above.

The vestibule was ornamented with four detached and twelve three-quarter columns, and four beautiful, antique masks. On the right and left were staircases leading to the boxes, and in the angles were two flights of stairs communicating with the pit. The stairs and lobbies were wide and commodious.

The interior of the house was of a circular form, and contained four tiers of boxes. The ceiling was supported by consoles, and was divided into twelve compartments, separated by *Thyræ* in bronze gilt. In the compartments were figures of Apollo, Mercury, Pan, Orpheus, Linus, Philamon, Amphion, The rambus, Arion, Terpander, Eonous and Demodocus. The proscenium was ornamented with three pictures, representing Apollo in the midst of the shepherds of Thessaly; Mercury lulling to sleep, by the sound of his flute, Argus, the keeper of the beautiful Io; and Pan pursuing the nymph Syrinx, and discovering by her metamorphosis into reeds the origin of the seven-piped flute, of which he was the inventor. The fronts of the boxes were decorated with tripods, griffins, garlands, lyres, and birds; and the first row presented, in compartments, the Nine Muses employed in instructing mortals. The colour of the house was green; the architectural ornaments yellow, and the other decorations white, red, and gold. The stage boxes were hung with crimson velvet, enriched with gold embroidery and fringe.

The saloon was splendid. It was ornamented with six single and eight coupled columns; the former crowned with antique vases, and the latter with tripods in gold. By means of arcades, the saloon might be viewed from the lobbies of all parts of the house. The walls were enriched with pictures, representing the genii of music and the twelve signs of the zodiac; and the ceiling with caissons, losenges, and a superb rose.

On the handsome of ruins. a perform after the theatre his past twelve man on d dian's sale and two are comm of the Lo "The est posts and the through capital. firemen mense cr Boulevard good com served on their effu itself w rather to same pi however half-pas in flame the Rue the sev difficult for pas greatest standing. The sh vards, theatre, streets est rich were bu that w of smu the air and at twenty The w were Opera, that fe on the howe by the "W fire h of life Italia the f tying ther t which into Had little been

On the 14th of last month, (January,) this handsome structure was reduced to a pile of ruins. It was Sunday. There had been a performance that evening; and it was after the audience had withdrawn, and the theatre had been closed, that, about half-past twelve, the flames were seen by a fireman on duty, bursting forth from the musician's saloon, which was warmed by a stove and two hot tubes. The following details are communicated by various correspondents of the London journals:—

"The alarm was quickly given to the nearest posts of firemen and the guard-houses, and the *generale* was immediately beaten through all the streets in that quarter of the capital. It was a quarter past one before the firemen and troops could arrive. An immense crowd was already assembled on the Boulevards and round the theatre, but the good conduct of the troops of the line preserved order. The firemen, perceiving that their efforts were useless, as far as the theatre itself was concerned, turned their attention rather to the houses which form part of the same pile of building. The conflagration, however, spread with fearful rapidity. By half-past two the whole of the building was in flames, and part of the wall on the side of the Rue Favart had fallen in. On account of the severity of the frost, there was much difficulty in procuring water; but the lines for passing buckets were formed with the greatest readiness, and well served, notwithstanding the intense cold that prevailed. The shops on the back fronting the Boulevards, and the houses on each side of the theatre, on the opposite sides of the narrow streets by which it is bounded, ran the greatest risk of catching fire; and the inmates were busy in removing their effects from those that were most threatened. Immense clouds of smoke and burning particles shot up into the air, high above the roof of the building; and at one time the flames themselves were twenty or thirty feet in height above its walls. The wind was from the south; and firemen were stationed on the roof of the French Opera, to guard against the shower of sparks that fell upon it, as well as on all the houses on that side of the Boulevards; fortunately, however, no fresh conflagration was caused by them.

"We are sorry to state that this melancholy fire has been attended with considerable loss of life. M. Severini, acting manager of the Italian Opera, who resided in the building on the fourth story, endeavoured to escape by tying sheets and blankets together; but whether through agitation, or from some accident which it is now impossible to ascertain, fell into the street, and was killed on the spot. Had this unfortunate gentleman remained a little longer in his apartment, he would have been preserved, since his two servants and

two children were safely brought down from thence. His body presented a shocking spectacle, and a large hole was perceptible in the side of his head.

"The escape of M. Robert, the other manager, was most extraordinary. He was in bed in his chamber on the second floor, when the flames burst in. He immediately wrapped himself in his dressing-gown, gathered up the sheets and coverlid of his bed, and got on to the roof by one of the skylights. Hence, being hard pressed by the fire, he slid down to the parapet; and tying the sheets and counterpane together, and fixing one end firmly to the top, he got by these means within sixty feet of the ground; where he remained suspended for some time, till at length, by an effort which under other circumstances he never could have made, he gained the balcony, from which he reached the ground in safety, by a knotted rope which one of the firemen threw up to him.

"The building itself is said to have been fully insured, and the furniture of the theatre was insured for 300,000 francs.

"The losses sustained by several individuals are irreparable. Rossini had an apartment in the theatre; and the whole of his musical library, which is said to be valued at upwards of 200,000 francs, is entirely destroyed, besides many rare and invaluable manuscripts. The library of M. Klaproth, the musical repository of the director, and his furniture, have been saved."

In Paris all classes of persons "turn out" to aid in extinguishing a great fire. "An immense body of soldiers were occupied in working the engines, in removing the goods of the inhabitants, in watching and protecting them, and in keeping open the passage for the water carts; for, alas! prejudice is yet too strong to permit the supply of Paris with water by pipes. The north side of the Boulevard, the Rue Lepelletier, and the Rue Laffitte, were made the depositories of all that was removed from the threatened houses. In addition to the officers of the troops employed on this arduous duty, there were to be seen private citizens, National Guards, firemen, Municipal Guards, Sergens de Ville, and police-officers.

"A number of well-dressed persons, who had just issued from Musard's Ball, and the concert of M. Valentino, submitted, with the best possible grace, to join the chain and pass the buckets."—*Spectator Newspaper*.

### Manners and Customs.

#### BEARDS.

THE earliest notice of attention to the growth of the beard is probably in Leviticus, where the lawgiver of the Jews, (chap. xix. 27.) says, "thou shalt not mar the corners of thy beard."

Generally speaking, the growth of the beard was cultivated among the nations of the East, although it must be observed that most of the Egyptian figures in the ancient paintings are without beards. The ancient Indian philosophers, called Gymnosophists, were solicitous to have long beards, as symbolical of their wisdom. The Assyrians and Persians also prided themselves on the length of their beards; and St. Chrysostom informs us, that the kings of Persia had their beards interwoven or matted with gold thread. The slaves in the Persian seraglios are shaved as a mark of servitude.

The Chinese are said to affect long beards; but nature having denied their natural growth, they are sometimes supplied to the chin artificially.

Alexander cut off the beards of the Macedonian soldiers, that they might not be used as handles by their enemies in battle. (Plutarch's Life of Theseus.)

The Romans first began to shave A. U. C. 454, when P. Ticius Mena brought over barbers from Sicily. Hadrian was the first Roman emperor who wore a beard. Some of the Africans wore long beards, as may be seen upon the coins of Juba.

The Lombards, or Longobardi, derived their name entirely from the length of their beards; and Eginhard, the secretary of Charlemagne, informs us, that the Merovingian, or first race of the French kings, were equally solicitous to nourish its growth.

The ancient Britons, according to Cæsar, wore no beards except upon the upper lip. Strabo speaks of the beards of the Scilly Islanders, as in his time like those of goats.

The Anglo-Saxons, on their arrival in Britain, and for a considerable time after, wore beards. The Normans shaved their beards, and even obliged the English to imitate them; and this was so disagreeable to many of them, that they chose rather to abandon their country than to lose their whiskers. Henry I. submitted to lose his beard by the hands of Serlo, archbishop of Sees. Edward III. is represented upon his tomb at Westminster, with a beard which would have graced a philosopher. Stowe, in his *Annals*, under 1535, says: "The 8th of May, the king commanded all about his court to pole their heads, and to give them example, he caused his own head to be polled, and from thenceforth his beard to be knotted, and no more shaven." The reader will readily call to mention the portraits of Paulet, Marquess of Winchester; Cardinal Pole; and Bishop Gardiner; all ornamented with flowing beards, in the reign of Mary I. According to the commentators on Shakespeare, the soldier had one fashion in the reign of Elizabeth, the judge another, and the bishop different from both. Malone has quoted an old ballad inserted in a miscellany entitled *Le Prince d'Amour*, 8vo.

1660, in which some of these forms are described and appropriated. Taylor the Water Poet, in his *Whip of Pride*, likewise describes the fashions of the beard as they still continued to subsist in his time.

The beard now gradually declined; and the court of Charles I. was the last in which even a small one was cherished. After the restoration of King Charles II., mustachios or whiskers continued, but the rest of the face was shaven; and in a short time the process of shaving the entire face became universal. Butler, in his *Hudibras*, (part 2, canto 1,) alludes to the beard "cut square by the Russian standard."

The beard went out of fashion in France in the reign of Louis XIII., and in Spain when Philip V. ascended the throne. In Russia it continued somewhat longer.

The eastern origin of some of our old romances is, perhaps, in no circumstance more visible than in the descriptions which are so frequently given of giants cutting off the beards of princes who fell into their hands. Drayton alludes to this practice in his *Polyolbion*, song 4:

"And for a trophy brought the giant's coat away,  
Made of the beards of kings."

W. A. B.

#### THE ARMENIANS.

Amongst the Armenians, (says a recent writer,) widowers and widows marry only with each other; it being considered disgraceful for a young man to marry a widow. Divorce is prohibited in the Armenian church, which, however, admits several causes of separation. The wife always waits upon her husband, particularly at table; and sons that are grown up and married, never presume to sit in the presence of their parents; the eldest alone has this privilege, and all the other members of the family are bound to wait upon him. Women never appear where men meet together, nor are men admitted to assemblies of females; amongst whom the newly-married obey the orders of the elder ones, and are never permitted to speak to any one in the house, or out of doors, unless the husband grant permission, which is not till they have been married two or three years.

The Armenians settled in the Russian provinces to the south of the Caucasus, form, generally, the principal part of the population of the cities: they are also settled in

• Alluding to the Czar Peter the Great, who compelled the nobility and gentry of Russia to part with these ornaments, partly by fine, and partly by actually ordering them to be shaved with a blunt razor, by which means scarce a beard was left in the kingdom at his death: but such a veneration had this people for these ensigns of gravity, that many of them carefully preserved their beards in their cabinets, to be buried with them, imagining perhaps that they should make but an odd figure in the grave with their naked chins.—*Dr. G. Fletcher's Treatise of Russia.*

the village  
of living  
from wh  
by their  
princip  
commerc  
the King  
granted  
by the o  
in an e  
peasants  
engage  
goods to  
the trad

A cur  
of gest  
Ferdina  
returne  
tion, in  
balcony  
pentan  
tas ne  
newspe  
on this  
king, l  
and un  
if he d  
address  
He rep  
he thr  
they a  
them  
perse  
was u  
most  
would  
some

[An  
with  
coun  
class  
and  
them  
publ  
ject  
wor  
men  
not  
into  
ciat  
deve  
togo  
ever  
cer  
col  
of  
its  
rea

the villages, in some districts. Their mode of living is the same as that of the Georgians, from whom, however, they are distinguished by their creed and their occupations: they principally devote themselves to trade and commerce. They were much oppressed by the Kings of Georgia, but the Russians have granted them all the political rights enjoyed by the other inhabitants, and protect them in an especial manner. The Armenian peasants, as well as the nobles and princes, engage in trade and commerce, and convey goods to the different fairs in Russia, and the trading cities of Turkey and Persia.

W. C. G.

#### DUMB MOTIONS.

A curious example occurred of this utility of gestures some years ago. When old Ferdinand, the darling of the Neapolitans, returned to his capital after the last revolution, in 1822, he presented himself at a balcony to the assembled multitude of repentant and delighted *lazzaroni*. Neapolitans never speak, they always shout; and, in newspaper phrase, to obtain a hearing was, on this occasion, out of the question. The king, however, was a thorough Neapolitan, and understood the language of the fingers, if he did not that of flowers; so he made his address, for we cannot call it a speech, in it. He reproved them for their past naughtiness, he threatened them with greater severity if they again misbehaved, and, after exhorting them to good conduct, ordered them to disperse and go home quietly. Every gesture was understood, without a word, amidst the most deafening sounds. Now, how useful would such an art be upon the hustings sometimes.—*Dublin Review*.

#### British Colonies.

##### NEW ZEALAND.

[AN Association has lately been formed with the object of Colonizing this important country. The Society consists of two classes of Members: first, heads of families and others, who have determined to establish themselves in the proposed colony; secondly public men, who, for the sake of public objects alone, are willing, to use their own words in addressing her Majesty's Government, "to undertake the responsible, and not very easy task, of carrying the measure into execution." With this view, the Association has recently published a volume developing its principles, objects, and plans, together with particulars, collected from every available source of information, concerning the islands which it is proposed to colonize. As the contents of this volume are of a much more attractive description than its semi-official character might lead the reader to expect, we propose to extract the

most interesting details, namely, a description of the New Zealand group, their native inhabitants, climate, soil, productions, &c.; not doubting that such information will lead the majority of our readers to seek the plans of colonization. The importance of this means of extending the happiness of the human family need not be insisted on; but has been so eloquently enforced by the Rev. Mr. Whewell's recent sermon before the Trinity Board, that we quote it: "it is not to be doubted, that this country has been invested with wealth of power, with arts and knowledge, with the sway of distant lands, and the mastery of the restless waters, for some great and important purpose in the history of the world. Can we suppose otherwise, than that it is our office to carry civilization and humanity, peace and good government, and, above all, the knowledge of the true God, to the uttermost ends of the earth."]

##### General Description of New Zealand.

The islands of New Zealand are situated between the 34th and 48th degrees of south latitude,—and the 166th and 179th degrees of east longitude. They are the lands nearest to the antipodes of Great Britain;—a central point taken in Cook's Strait, which separates, and is about equidistant from the northern and southern extremities, of the two principal islands, being seven hundred miles from the antipodes of London, with the advantage of being, to that extent, nearer to the equator. The nearest land to the westward is Van Diemen's Land and New Holland; to the eastward, Chili in South America; and to the northward, the Friendly Islands and the adjacent clusters of islands forming the great Polynesian Archipelago. The unexplored waters of the Southern Ocean form the boundary southward.

In shape it is an irregular and straggling oblong: and in detached position from the nearest continents, New Zealand bears some resemblance to the British Isles. It resembles them in other matters of greater importance. Like them, surrounded by the sea, it possesses the same means of ready communication and of rapid conveyance, to all parts of its coasts; and the same facilities for an extensive trade, within its numerous bays and rivers. The temperature of the warmer latitudes in which it is placed, is influenced or regulated, as in Great Britain, by the refreshing and invigorating sea breezes, and the whole line of coast abounds with fish, in great variety and of great delicacy. In addition to these natural advantages, the harbours of New Zealand, which are most numerous, afford a safe and central rendezvous to the immense shipping trade of the whole southern archipelago;—an expanse not less than fifteen thousand miles in circumference, covered with myriads of islands,—many of them ex-

ceeding greatly, in size, the whole British Isles. The voyage from Britain to New Zealand, although the distance is greater than to Sydney, occupies about the same length of time, in consequence of the prevalent state of the winds. While in returning to Britain, the voyage from New Zealand is of course shorter than the voyage from Sydney, by the distance between the two places, or about one thousand two hundred miles.

The extent of New Zealand has been variously estimated. The distance between the North and South Capes is about nine hundred miles,—the greatest breadth of the Northern Island, which is the wider of the two, is about three hundred miles; diminishing to two hundred, and one hundred, and to greatly less towards the northern extremity, where at one point, distant about one hundred and fifty miles from the North Cape, there is an isthmus, of not more than three miles across. By the latest, and it is believed the most accurate account, the area of the Northern Island is computed at forty thousand English square miles, while that of the Southern Island,—of which Stewart's Island may be considered an appendage,—is considerably more than one third larger. The extent of the two islands must be at least ninety-five thousand English square miles, or above sixty millions of square acres.

The face of the country presents many striking objects to arrest and engage attention. There is a range of vast mountains traversing the centre of the whole length of one island, and the greater part of the other;—bays and harbours are scattered in profusion along the shores of both islands;—and there is a continual succession of rivers and lakes, extensive forests, valleys, open country and plains, from one end of the islands to the other.

The mountains of New Zealand stretch along the centre of the Southern Island, for its whole length, and along the better half of the Northern Island; and sloping gradually down towards the sea level, leave an immense extent of forest, plain, and pasture, on both sides of the mountain range, between it and the sea. This lofty chain has, not inaptly, been called the back-bone of the island. Here and there along both lines of this magnificent Cordillera, several huge mountains overtopping those surrounding them, rise into the region of perpetual snow. Some of them are more than fourteen thousand feet above the level of the sea,—an elevation nearly equal to Mont Blanc. There are likewise several subordinate ranges of hills;—and a few detached outliers of vast dimensions. Among this number are Mount Egmont, on the west coast of Taranakee; and on the east coast, Mount Edgecombe, and Hikurangi, in the valley of the Waipatu. A few of the smaller mountains are barren or clothed with

fern;—but by far the greater number are covered, up to the range of perpetual snow, by magnificent timber of enormous size, and of great variety of kinds.

These mountains, from their vicinity to all parts of the island, and their great elevation, exercise a constant and most beneficial influence on the climate and vegetation. The clouds which collect on their lofty summits, descend and disperse in refreshing and never failing showers, over the whole extent of the country. Hence the luxuriance and rapidity of vegetation; the never-fading foliage of the trees, and the equal temperature and salubrity of the climate throughout the whole year. Innumerable streams descend from them, on both sides, supplied from the perpetual snows, on their summits, and collecting into deep and navigable rivers, fall into the sea, on both sides of the island, at a distance from their source, in some instances, of two hundred, and in several of above a hundred miles. To the same cause may be ascribed the absence of droughts, and hot winds, which constantly threaten, and too often blight, the crops and pastures of some parts of Australia. In fine, from all accounts that have been obtained, the climate of New Zealand would seem to combine the warmth of Southern Italy with the refreshing moisture and bracing atmosphere of the English Channel.

The information hitherto obtained of the geology and mineralogy of New Zealand, is so defective, and inaccurate, as not to merit separate notice. The range of mountains, from seven hundred to eight hundred miles long, and from ten thousand to fifteen thousand feet high, which traverse the country, is not known to have been visited by any European,—and must, therefore, be surrendered to the ingenious inferences of the scientific. There are several volcanoes in active operation,—one in the Taranakee district, visible from the Waikato country;—and another in the Southern Island. There are several hills, which have at some remote period been volcanoes; those which have been visited, are situated towards the northern division of the Northern Island.

"They are pierced," says the recent work of a missionary, "by many deep and dark caves, having the entrance covered over with thick brushwood; we rolled large stones into the cave, which bounded from shelf to shelf, till the echo was lost in the distance, or distinguished in the last sounds by the splash into a spring of water, into which they had fallen at the bottom, and which discharges itself into the lake at the base of the hill. The whole of these cavities seemed to be of the same description, and terminate in the same opening into the lake; their dimensions were about twenty-three feet wide. Numerous hot springs bubble up here and there in

the vic-  
close to  
the No-  
of boil-  
cookin-  
marka-  
oil; an-  
except  
cleanse  
particu-  
he wit-  
in the  
rivers  
ble fo-  
posed  
found-  
bour-  
Missi-  
13th  
bank  
rema-  
grou-  
sunk  
two  
faller-  
stri-  
vario-  
in c-  
pos-  
sing  
this  
othe-  
river  
way  
A  
use,  
tate  
use  
sup-  
The  
car-  
wh  
Th  
Som  
me  
na  
des  
an  
lal  
ial  
tai  
ste  
se  
on  
co  
of  
up  
sh  
ri  
M  
w  
E  
S  
t  
a



the vicinity of these hills. Some of those close to the lake Rotorua, near the centre of the Northern Island, rise to the temperature of boiling-heat, and the natives use them for cooking; there is one spring of a very remarkable quality; it is to the touch soft as oil; and without the use of soap or any alkali except what the water itself contains, will cleanse the dirtiest garments, removing every particle of grease, however sullied they may be with it; the lake itself is quite cool, and in the middle of it is a rapid stream." The rivers Waipa and Horoteu, which are navigable for above two hundred miles, are supposed to flow from this lake. Major Cruise found two exhausted volcanoes in the neighbourhood of the river Thames. Mr. Williams, Missionary, mentions in his journal of the 13th of March, 1835, when travelling on the banks of the Thames, "We passed through a remarkable place this morning, where the ground had, at some remote period, suddenly sunk perpendicularly between one hundred and two hundred feet; very many acres had thus fallen the extreme depth, presenting a very striking appearance. The sides exhibited the various strata, like the waves of the sea when in considerable motion. They were composed of pumice stones, very small; it was singularly beautiful; our road lay through this curious vale, and we soon entered another equally curious, through which this river, which is wide and deep, winds its way."

A blue pigment of which the natives make use, appears to be manganese; a red precipitate from one of their sulphuric springs is used for dyeing the native garments, and is supposed to be a protoxide of manganese. The natives make some of their weapons and carving tools of a green tale, or jasper-stone, which is found only in the Southern Island. The name set down on maps as that of the South Island, "Tavai Poenammoo," merely means the place of green-stone. Before the natives became acquainted with iron, they deemed it very valuable. They dive for it and fish it up from the bottom of an inland lake, towards the southern extremity of the island, and it is not found elsewhere. Captain Cook remarked the quantity of iron-stone brought down by the streams to the sea-shore, and inferred the existence of iron ore not far inland. Recently on the western coast of the Northern Island, vast quantities of iron ore or iron sand were observed, washed up to the depth of several feet along the shores, in the beds, and at the mouths of rivers and streams of water from the port of Manukou to the Mokou river, being the whole extent of the Waikato country, and extending not less than one hundred miles. Specimens have been brought to this country, and have been given to various scientific gentlemen, who promised, but never made

an early analysis. In the channels, or rather in the banks of some streams, there were also observed by Mr. Betts, purveyor on board her Majesty's ship Buffalo, masses "of iron, as if fused, of the size of two or three cannon balls jammed together." Mr. Nicholas obtained some specimens of pumice-stone, which the natives used for polishing their spears, and likewise some obsidium or volcanic glass. Rutherford, in his Narrative, quoted into the New Zealand volume of the Library of Useful Knowledge, states, that "many fine veins of coal make their appearance in the interior of the Northern Island, although the natives burn nothing but wood." Several natives, however, have described abundant coal as existing in the Southern Island, near Otago Bay; and from their having said so, at Sydney, when coals were exhibited to them, there does not seem any reason to doubt their information. Rutherford also mentions that he had seen, "beds of oyster-shells three feet under the surface of the ground, and at the distance of ten miles from the coast. The natives," he adds, with characteristic simplicity, "can give no account how they got there." Rutherford also mentions that there is a plain about a mile square, near the East Cape, beneath the surface of which is a light yellow dust, like sulphur, to the depth of several feet, which blisters the skin, and is somewhat warm. Whinstone is very plentiful on the banks of many of the rivers, affording an ample supply of materials for building. "There also have been found quarries of granite, specimens of quartz, carbonate of lime, fine marble, sulphuret of iron," &c. &c. In one of the upper tributaries of the Hokianga, the Mangamuka, there is an extensive quarry of slate, of a lightish blue colour. It projects into the river, presenting a rugged surface from exposure to the weather. It readily splits up into large thin slates or slabs; the strata slope downwards to the northward, at an angle, perhaps, of sixty-five degrees, and exhibit every appearance of a fine description of slate. There is also a fine quarry of soft stone, supposed to be freestone, at the entrance of Waimea river, on the Hokianga. In every part of the country, clay of all kinds is to be found, and particularly the lighter kinds, best fitted for brick-burning.

#### THE CANADAS.

[The following seasonable notices have been abridged from Mr. Montgomery Martin's very interesting *History of Upper and Lower Canada*, in the British Colonial Library.]

LOWER CANADA is comprised within the parallels of 45° and 52° N. Lat., and the meridians of 57° 50' to 80° 6' W. of Greenwich; embracing, so far as its boundaries will admit of estimation, an area of 205,863 square miles, including a superficies of 3,200 miles,

covered by the numerous lakes and rivers of the Province, and *excluding* the surface occupied by the St. Lawrence river and part of the Gulf, which cover 52,000 square miles; the entire Province, land and water, being about a quarter of a million square miles, or 160,000,000 of acres.

Upper Canada is comprised within the parallels of 41° to 49° N., and the meridians of 74° to 117° W. of Greenwich, embracing an area of about 100,000 square miles, or 64,000,000 of acres. The general boundaries of this vast country have been stated in the preceding chapter; and it will be seen that the great lakes are divided between Great Britain and the United States, an arrangement which the French, while in possession of Canada, sedulously avoided conceding to the English.

[Quebec, the capital of Lower Canada, has already been described in *The Mirror*.]

Montreal, (the second city in Lower Canada,) in 45° 46' N. Lat., is situate upon the north or left bank of the St. Lawrence, (160 miles SW. from Quebec,) upon the southernmost point of an island bearing the same name, and which is formed by the river St. Lawrence on the S., and a branch of the Ottawa, or grand river, on the N. The island is in length, from E. to W. 30 miles, and from N. to S. eight miles: its surface is an almost uniform flat, with the exception of an isolated hill or mountain on its W. extremity, which rises from 500 to 800 feet higher than the river level. Along its base, and particularly up its sides, are thickly interspersed corn-fields, orchards, and villas, above which, to the very summit of the mountain, trees grow in luxuriant variety. The view from the top, though wanting in the sublime grandeur of Cape Diamond at Quebec, is romantically picturesque: on the S., the blue hills of Vermont, and around a vast extent of thickly inhabited, cultivated, and fertile country, embellished with woods, waters, churches, cottages, and farms,—beneath the placid city of Montreal, its shipping and river craft, and the fortified island of St. Helena, altogether exhibiting a scene of softly luxuriant beauty. Within a mile to the NW. of the town the range of the mountain gradually declines for a few miles to the W. and N. to the level of the surrounding country. The bank of the river upon which Montreal is built, has a gradual elevation of 20 to 30 feet, sloping again in the rear of the town, where there is a canal to carry off any accumulated water: the land then again undulates to the N. to a higher range. The streets are parallel with the river, and intersect each other at right angles; the houses are for the most part of a greyish stone, covered with sheet iron or tin: many of them are handsome structures, and would be considered as such even in London. Among the principal edifices are

the Hotel Dieu, the Convent of Notre Dame, the General Hospital, the New College, Hôpital général des Sœurs grises, the French Cathedral, English and Scotch Churches, Court House, Government House, Nelson's Monument, Barracks, Gaol, &c. &c. The new Roman Catholic Cathedral is the most splendid temple in the *new* world, and only surpassed in the *old* by interior grandeur. It was commenced in 1824, finished in 1829, and dedicated to the Virgin Mary. In length, it is 225 feet, breadth 234, and the height of the walls is 112 feet. The architecture is of the rich Gothic of the 13th century. It has six massive towers, between which is a promenade along the roof 25 feet wide, elevated 112 feet. There are seven altars, and the E. window behind the grand altar is 70 feet high by 33 feet broad; the other windows 36 feet by 10. It is surrounded by a fine terrace, and the chime of bells, the clocks, altars, &c., correspond with the magnificent exterior. This splendid structure will accommodate 12,000 persons, who may disperse in, six minutes by five public and three private entrances.

In the extent and importance of her trade—in the beauty of her public and private buildings—in the gay appearance of her shops, and in all the external signs of wealth, Montreal far surpasses the metropolitan city of the province. Its population in 1825 was 22,357; and in 1831, 27,297; at present, it is about 35,000. The whole island is comprised in one seigniory, and belongs to the priests, who are consequently wealthy, but by no means rigorous in exacting the *lods et ventes* due to them on the mutation of land, they usually compound for these fines.

### Useful Arts.

#### WRITING FLUIDS AND INKS.

DR. BIRKBECK, the president of the Mechanics' Institution, lately gave a lecture upon the relative excellence of Writing Fluids and Inks. After some general observations on the importance of the art of writing to man, in its handing down to posterity all that was worth preserving of bygone ages, its power of assimilating mind to mind, and, as Pope beautifully says—

"Spreads the soft intercourse from soul to soul,  
And wafts a sigh from Indus to the Pole."

the lecturer proceeded to make some remarks on the various substances used in different ages of the world for writing on, from the papyrus of the Egyptians to the beautiful sheet of linen paper, now capable, by the power of machinery, of being made to an almost infinite size. The multiplication of the little instruments for impressing the paper with our thoughts, was also astonishing; no less than two hundred and forty millions of metal pens being now added to

our sto  
to dimi  
cation  
Egypti  
their c  
mentio  
says, t  
powde  
of gur  
the R  
charac  
more  
as the  
Hercu  
been l  
of the  
charac  
Indian  
was a  
have  
sixth  
of pre  
teent  
rials  
gum-  
grow  
leaf  
and  
occas  
the w  
the a  
bore  
count  
this  
form  
and  
also  
copp  
the  
a de  
whic  
kind  
clog  
of it  
from  
mea  
to o  
be a  
ven  
year  
inde  
Lor  
thos  
hav  
give  
of  
tail  
duc  
ture  
ledj  
has  
stru  
his  
com  
me



our stock of quills, which latter did not seem to diminish—a proof of the progress of education and civilization. The practice of the Egyptians was to paint rather than write their characters. Pliny and Vitruvius make mention of the Roman ink, and Dioscorides says, that it was made of one part of a black powder, probably lamp-black, and three parts of gum. This formed the ink with which the Romans wrote, or rather painted their characters. The ink then employed was more durable than the writing-ink now used, as the papyrus and manuscripts found in Herculaneum fully proved, and which had been buried 2,000 years ago. The Chinese of the present day paint instead of write their characters, making use of a small brush and Indian ink. The Saxon ink of our ancestors was superior even to our own ink; for we have manuscripts written in the fifth and sixth centuries, which are in a higher degree of preservation than those written in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries. The materials for making ordinary ink are galls, iron, gum-arabic, sugar, and water. Galls are a growth or excrescence formed on the footstalk leaf of the oak, by an insect, which, boring and depositing with its ovipositor, an egg, occasions the growth of the excrescence by the wound it inflicts, and this excrescence is the shield of the egg until the mature insect bores a passage and escapes. These galls contain a peculiar acid, called gallic acid, and this acid, uniting with the sulphate of iron, forms the black fluid called ink. Logwood and sulphate of copper, or blue vitriol, are also employed to deepen the colour; but the copper has great disadvantages, because when the pen is mended, if it is not perfectly clean, a deposit of copper is formed on the penknife, which greatly deteriorates its sharpness; this kind of ink also encrusts the inkstands, and clogs the pen so as to prevent the free flowing of it to the paper, and it is also easily erased from paper by acids and other chemical means. It became, therefore, a great object to obtain a fluid for writing which should not be subject to these disadvantages and inconveniences; and the writing ink, for the invention of which he believed the public to be indebted to Mr. Henry Stephens, chemist, London, did appear to be free from most of those inconveniences. Mr. Stephens not having sought the protection of a patent, had given rise to a number of imitations—many of which were probably very good, but certainly, in his opinion, not equal to that produced by the original inventor. He, the lecturer, had seen journals as day-books and ledgers, by which it appeared the inventor has used this composition for four years. The struggles of the inventor might be seen in his attempts with various colours. Upon this composition alone he had made 250 experiments. In the two saucers before them, were

two modifications of the colouring matter used in the composition of this fluid, one of which is perfectly dry, and the other always wet, from its disposition to deliquesce, or absorb moisture; and upon this disposition its fluidity in a great measure depended. The permanency of colours may, in a great degree, be tested by an agent, which acts in the same manner as the sun and time, namely, the chloride of lime, which produces the same effect in a short space as would require a very long exposure to effect. He had taken ten specimens of writing fluid, and had submitted them to the action of chloride of lime. The first line was written with Stephens's, and all the intermediate lines with various imitations; the last line was also written with Stephens's, mixed with one half water; as they would perceive, the first and the last lines were the only ones remaining. The lecturer then repeated the experiment with Stephens's fluid and several other imitations, by causing a line to be written with each, (*each bottle being previously well shaken*); on the application of the chloride the imitations disappeared, while the original remained little, if at all, affected. Slips of paper were exhibited by the lecturer, half of which had been soaked with the fluid more than twelve months since, by which it appeared that the part soaked was as sound and good as that which had not been. An inkstand was also exhibited, the invention of Mr. Stephens, which appeared well adapted for using the fluid. He thought Mr. Stephens entitled to much credit for his invention; and as this article might be purchased at about the same price as the best common inks were formerly sold, he had no doubt but he would obtain, as he deserved, the patronage of the public. He, (Dr. Birkbeck,) could bear testimony to the strength of the article, having used it diluted with water. He then glanced slightly at the sympathetic inks, which he termed rather amusing than useful, and the marking inks for writing on linen—of the latter of which he spoke in terms of unqualified praise—and said that however unimportant this subject might appear, yet that it was of the very first importance could not be denied, as an adjunct of that art which had brought civilization, the sciences, and all the arts of life, as they now exist.—*Quart. Journ. Agric.*

### Spirit of Discovery.

#### PROGRESS OF DIGESTION.

ALEXIS ST. MARTIN, a Canadian, eighteen years of age, having a good constitution and robust health, was accidentally wounded by the discharge of a musket in June, 1822. "The charge, consisting of powder and duck shot, was received in the left side, at the distance of one yard from the muzzle of the

gun. The contents entered posteriorly, and in an oblique direction, forward and inward, literally blowing off integuments and muscle to the size of a man's hand; fracturing and carrying away the anterior half of the sixth rib, fracturing the fifth, lacerating the lower portion of the lungs, the diaphragm, and perforating the stomach." Thanks to an extraordinary constitution, and the skill and attention of Dr. Beaumont, this young man recovered. The wound in the stomach had sloughed, lacerated portions of the stomach had come away, the edge of the orifice had healed, but the opening had never closed. A year after the accident, the injured parts were all sound, a perforation into the stomach remaining open of two and a half in circumference. The food could only be retained in the stomach by means of a compress over the aperture, secured by a bandage, till some months after this time, when a fold or doubling of the inner coat of the stomach appeared, and gradually increased in size, till it filled the aperture, and acted as a valve, preventing completely the escape of any of the contents of the stomach through the aperture, but being easily pushed back from without, so as to admit of any thing being put into the stomach or taken out of it. The man was now in perfect health, the facility of observation had never been equalled, and Dr. Beaumont availed himself in the most masterly manner of the opportunity thus offered. "Dr. Beaumont begun his experiments in May, 1825, and continued them for four or five months, St. Martin being then in high health. In the autumn St. Martin returned to Canada, married, had a family, worked hard, engaged as a voyageur with the Hudson's Bay Company, remained there four years, and was then engaged at a great expense by Dr. Beaumont to come and reside with him on the Mississippi, for the purpose of enabling him to complete his investigations. He came accordingly in August, 1829, and remained till March, 1831. He then went a second time to Canada, but returned to Dr. Beaumont in November, 1832, when the experiments were once more resumed, and continued till March, 1833, at which time he finally left Dr. Beaumont. He now enjoyed perfect health, but the orifice made by the wound remained in the same state as in 1824." Dr. Beaumont has determined several very interesting matters, which have been long subjects of controversy among physiologists, and with which it is important that all men should be acquainted. It used to be thought that the gastric juice is poured out during the intervals of digestion, accumulating to be in readiness for the next meal. The Doctor has proved that this is not the case. St. Martin fasted for some hours, and was then placed so that the opening into the stomach was exposed to a strong light. Dr.

Beaumont had then a distinct view of the cavity of the stomach; and he found its only contents to be a little viscid mucus, mixed with saliva, being only occasionally, and then very lightly, acidulated. There was in no instance any accumulation of the proper gastric juice. The reasonable deduction from this very important fact is, that, to eat little and often, with the view of defending the stomach from the action of the gastric juice, is unnecessary, seeing that no gastric juice is secreted when the stomach is empty. This was a prevailing error with the bygone generation of medical men, and is still a very general error among the non-medical public. It is thought that in delicate people it must be injurious ever to allow the stomach to get empty; and accordingly this much abused organ is kept constantly at work, to the manifest injury of its powers, with the view of protecting it from what, in fact, is not secreted, unless when required for the digestion of food.—*Magazine of Health.*

### New Books.

#### THE RURAL LIFE OF ENGLAND.

By William Howitt.

[THIS work must prove acceptable to a very large class of readers, inasmuch as it glances at Nature in her glorious works, and at the most prominent features of the English character, influenced in its formation by the varied and beautiful scenery of our lovely isle. It is, therefore, strictly a book of the country, life, and manners of the people of England, abounding with many interesting pictures of progressive civilization and national happiness. The plan of the work is good. The first volume to which our attention must at present be confined, is divided into three parts: 1. Rural life, pursuits, and advantages of the gentry of England. 2. Life of the Agricultural population. 3. Picturesque and moral features of the country. The subdivisions are into chapters as the Pre-eminence of England as a place of country residence; Life of the Gentry in the Country—Country Sports—Scientific Farming—Planting—Gardens, and Country Excitements. From the latter we extract the following on

#### *Walking in the Country.*

There is a cause which diminishes in a great degree the enjoyment that might be found in the country, and that is, the almost total cessation of walking amongst the wealthy. Since the universal use of carriages, for any thing I can see, thousands of people might just as well be born without legs at all. It would be easy to move them from the bed to the carriage,—thence to the dinner-table, and again to bed. In the country,

and est  
towns,  
in their  
you mee  
as you  
rode on  
were he  
carriage  
he had  
his car  
twelve  
neighb  
over w  
pried  
me her  
ing any  
With  
attend  
cess's  
day me  
snow,  
sharpe  
have n  
on foot  
yet wh  
woods,  
views  
around  
observ  
ground  
tiful,  
the be  
nity of  
the wi  
by the  
the sh  
aspect  
only i  
who n  
merely  
nine-t  
Those  
see w  
rangin  
ocean  
the li  
many  
throu  
vised  
tions,  
ladies  
ing,  
that  
moun  
time,  
the m  
[F  
ing p  
Th  
toler  
high  
Thei  
as th

and especially in the country not far from towns, how rarely do you see the rich except in their luxurious carriages! How rarely do you meet them walking, or even on horseback, as you used to do! Sir Roger de Coverley rode on horseback to the assizes in his day—were he living now, he would roll there in his carriage—lest some one should imagine that he had mortgaged his estate, and laid down his carriage in retrenchment. During the twelve months that I have resided in this neighbourhood—a neighbourhood studded all over with wealthy houses, nothing has surprised me, and the friends who have visited me here, so much as the great rarity of seeing any of the wealthy classes on their legs. With the exception of the Queen and her attendant ladies, who during the then Princess's abode at Claremont, might be every day met in the winter, walking in frost and snow, and facing the sharpest winds of the sharpest weather, I scarcely remember to have met half a dozen of the wealthy classes on foot a mile from their residences. And yet what splendid, airy heaths what delicious woods, what nooks of bowery foliage, what views into far landscapes, are there all around! It is true, as some of them have observed, that they walk in their own grounds; but what grounds, however beautiful, can compensate for the fresh feeling of the heath and the down; for the dim solemnity of the wild wood; for open, breezy hills, the winding lane, the sight of rustic cottages by the forest side, the tinkle of the herd or the sheep bell, and all the wild sounds and aspects of earth and heaven, to be met with only in the free regions of nature? They who neglect to walk, or confine their strolls merely to the lawn and the shrubbery, lose nine-tenths of the enjoyment of the country. Those young men whom it is a pleasure to see with their knapsacks on their backs ranging over moor and mountain, by lakes or ocean, in Scotland or Wales, taste more of the life of life in a few summer months, than many dwellers in the country ever dream of through their whole existence. I speak advisedly, for I traverse the country in all directions, let me be where I will; and if any ladies think themselves too delicate for walking, I can point them out delicate ladies too that have made excursions on foot through mountain regions of five hundred miles at a time, and recur to those seasons as amongst the most delightful of their lives.

[From the succeeding chapter is this amusing portraiture of]

#### *The English Farmer.*

There is no class of men, if times are but tolerably good, that enjoy themselves so highly as farmers. They are little kings. Their concerns are not huddled into a corner as those of the town tradesman are. In

town, many a man who turns thousands of pounds per week, is hemmed in close by buildings, and cuts no figure at all. A narrow shop, a contracted warehouse, without an inch of room besides to turn him, on any hand; without a yard, a stable, or outhouse of any description; perhaps hoisted aloft, up three or four pairs of dirty stairs is all the room that the wealthy tradesman often can bless himself with; and there, day after day, month after month, year after year, he is to be found, like a bat in a hole in a wall, or a toad in the heart of a stone, or of an oak tree. Spring, and summer, and autumn go round; sunshine and flowers spread over the world; the sweetest breezes blow, the sweetest waters murmur along the vales, but they are all lost upon him; he is the doleful prisoner of mammon, and so he lives and dies. The farmer would not take the wealth of the world on such terms. His concerns, however small, spread themselves out in a pleasant amplitude both to his eye and heart. His house stands in its own stately solitude; his offices and outhouses stand round extensively without any stubborn and limiting contraction; his acres stretch over hill and dale; there his flocks and herds are feeding; there his labourers are toiling.—he is king and sole commander there. He lives amongst the purest air, and the most delicious quiet. Often when I see those healthy, hardy, full-grown sons of the soil going out of town, I envy them the freshness and the repose of the spots to which they are going. Ample old-fashioned kitchens, with their chimney-corners of the true, projecting, beamed and seated construction, still remaining; blazing fires in winter, shining on suspended hams and fitches, guns supported on hooks above, dogs basking on the hearth below; cool, shady parlours in summer, with open windows, and odours from garden and shrubbery blowing in; gardens wet with purest dews, and humming at noontide with bees; and green fields and verdurous trees, or deep woodlands lying all around, where a hundred rejoicing voices of birds or other creatures are heard, and winds blow to and fro, full of health and life-enjoyment. How enviable do such places seem to the fretted spirits of towns, who are compelled not only to bear their burden of cares, but to enter daily into the public strife against selfish, evil, and ever spreading corruption. When one calls to mind the simple abundance of farm-houses, their rich cream and milk, and unadulterated butter, and bread grown upon their own lands, sweet as that which Christ broke, and blessed as he gave to his disciples; their fruits ripe and fresh-plucked from the sunny wall, or the garden bed, or the pleasant old orchard; when one casts one's eyes upon, or calls to one's memory the aspect of these houses, many of them so antiquesquely picturesque, or so

bright-looking and comfortable, in deep retired valleys, by beautiful streams, or amongst fragrant woodlands, one cannot help saying with King James of Scotland, when he met Johnny Armstrong :—

What want these leaves that a King should have?

Cobbett complains that the farmer has been spoiled by the growth of luxurious habits and effeminacy in the nation. That the simple old furniture is cast out of their houses; that carpets are laid on their floors; that there are sofas and pianos to be found where there used to be wooden benches, and the spinning-wheel; that the daughters are sent to boarding-school, instead of to market; and the sons, instead of growing up sturdy husbandmen, like their fathers, are made clerks, shopkeepers, or some such "skimmy-dish things."

It is true enough that the general style of living and furnishing has progressed amongst the farmers as amongst all other classes of the community. And perhaps there has been too much of this. But it should be recollected that Cobbett was opposed to popular education altogether. He would have the rural population physically well off, but it should be physically only. He would have them feed and work and sleep like their sturdy horses or oxen: but is such a state desirable? Is it not far more noble, far more truly human, to have all classes partaking, as far as their circumstances will allow them, of the pleasures of mind? I would have real knowledge go hand in hand with real religious principle and moral feeling, and where they go, a certain and inseparable degree of refinement of manner and embellishment of abode will go with them. Would I have the follies and affectations of the modern boarding-school go into the farm-house? By no means. It is by the circulation of healthful knowledge that all this is to be rooted out, and the race of finikin and half genteel, and wholly ridiculous boarding-school misses to be changed into usefully taught and really valuable and amiable women. We should avoid one extreme as the other.

It should be recollected too, that amongst farmers are to be found men of all ranks and grades. Farming has been, and is, a fashionable pursuit. We have ducal farmers, and from them all degrees downwards. Gentlemen's stewards, educated men, are farmers; and many farmers are persons whose capital employed in their extensive concerns, would purchase the estates of nobles. All these, of course, live and partake of the habits, general character, and refinements of the classes to which they, by their wealth, really belong: and amongst the medium class of farmers we find as little aspiring of gentility, as amongst the same grade of tradesmen. Nay, go into the really rural and retired parts of the country, and they are simple and rustic enough.

Let those who doubt it go into the dales of Yorkshire; into the Peak and retirements of Derbyshire; into the vales of Nottinghamshire, and midland counties; let them traverse Buckinghamshire and Shropshire; let them go into the wild valleys of Cornwall; ay, into the genuine country of almost any part of England, and they will find stone floors and naked tables, and pewter plates, and straw beds, and homely living enough in all conscience. They may see oxen ploughing in the fields with simple, heavy, wooden yokes such as were used five hundred years ago; and horses harnessed with collars of straw, and an old rope or two, not altogether worth half-a-crown, doing the tillage of large farms. They may eat a turnip pie in one place, and oatmeal cake, or an oatmeal pudding in another, and bless their stars if they see a bit of butcher's meat once a week. Yes, there are primitive living and primitive habits left over vast districts of England yet, which, we trust, under a better view of things will receive no change, except such as springs from the gradual and sound growth of true knowledge.

But they bring up their sons to be clerks and such "skimmy-dish things" in towns. Ay, there is the rub; and this we owe to the rage for large rentals inspired by the war prices; by false notions of improvement generated during the heyday of farming prosperity; by gentlemen making stewards of lawyers, who have no real knowledge of farming interests, and can, therefore, have no sympathies with the small farmer, or patience with him in the day of his difficulty, and whose only object is to get the greatest rent at the easiest rate. But above all, this we owe to the detestable doctrine of political economy, by which a dozen of moderate farms are swallowed up in one overgrown one,—a desert, from which both small farmers and labourers were compelled to depart, to make way for machinery, and Irish labourers at fourpence a-day. Where were the farmers to put their sons when they were brought up? The small farms, the natural resource for divided capitals and commencements in agricultural life, were, in a great measure, annihilated; and a most useful race of men as far as possible rooted out. Thank God! this abomination and worse than Egyptian plague, is now seen through, and what is better, is felt. We shall yet have farms from fifty to a hundred acres, where men of small capitals may try their fortunes, and have a chance of mounting up, instead of being thrust down into the hopeless condition of serfs. We may have humble homesteads, where a father and his sons may work together; where labour may await their days and an independent fireside their hours of rest. Where a lowly, but a happy people may congregate at Christmas and other festi-

vals, and  
turn-ire  
sued in  
(The  
annexed

Let  
modern  
rusticit  
farmer  
board-  
Peak o  
Farm  
ite!  
Gue  
till I'm  
Farm  
mon:  
wee.

This  
Peak,  
curious  
counties  
out by  
towns  
have a  
plexion  
procee  
and n  
In the  
mon t  
sant e  
shire,  
are so  
Scotla  
guage  
when  
village  
clever  
land,"  
which  
they  
notice  
shire  
lar na  
in ge  
in D

Road  
cou  
gig  
—  
evie  
Faw  
posi  
The  
the  
beau  
try  
lities

vals, and the old games of blind-man's-buff, turn-trencher, and forfeits, may long be pursued in the evening fire-light of rustic rooms.

[The chapter on Farm-Servants yields the annexed specimen of]

#### *Vernacular Rusticity.*

Let no one say that modern language and modern habits have driven away the ancient rusticity, while such dialogues between the farmer and guest as the following may be heard—and such may yet be heard in the Peak of Derbyshire, where this really passed.

*Farmer at Table to his Guest.*—Ite mon, ite!

*Guest.*—Au have iten, mon. Au've iten till I'm weelly brussen.

*Farmer.*—Then ite, and brust thee out mon: au wooden we hadden to brussen thee wee.

This is the present genuine dialect of the Peak, and is nearly as pure Saxon. It is curious to see in the southern agricultural counties, how the old Saxon terms are worn out by a greater intercourse with London and townspeople, although the people themselves have a most Saxon look, with their fair complexions and light brown hair; while, as you proceed northward, the Saxon becomes more and more prevalent in the country dialects. In the midland counties, bracken is the common term for fern—in the south not a peasant ever heard it. The dialects of Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Staffordshire, are so similar to that of the Sassenach of Scotland, the Lowland Scots, that the language of Burns was nearly as familiar to me when I first read his poems, as that of my village neighbours; and the Scotch read that dexter romance of low life, "Bilberry Thurland," with a great relish, the dialogues of which are genuine Nottinghamshire, because they said, it was such good Scotch. I have noticed that the plays of the boys in Derbyshire and in the Scotch Lowlands have similar names, differing from the English names in general; as the English game of bandy, in Derbyshire is shinny, in Scotland shinty.

#### *The Contemporary Traveller.*

ORIGINAL LETTERS FROM ABROAD.

*By Theodore S. Fay.*

Road from Hamburg to Berlin—the surrounding country—beautiful architecture of the city gate—gigantic buildings—unrivalled beauty of the streets—German cookery—formation of a German bed—evils of a German hotel.

Few cities are approached by such an imposing road as Berlin from Hamburg. The guide-book speaks of it as standing in the midst of a desert, destitute both of beauty or fertility. The surrounding country is certainly without uncommon capabilities for the cultivator, but for some miles

before reaching the Prussian metropolis, we are charmed with luxuriant parks. For the last three miles the road lies through a wood of thick and lofty trees, and combines the elegance of art with the wildness of nature. Long avenues of impenetrable shade, extending in straight lines from certain points, are cut through the almost opaque foliage—beautiful sylvan lanes and winding paths, intersected by meandering streams and rustic bridges, open upon the eye on every side. On the bright summer afternoon when we first entered them, these places with their sylvan solitary glades, deep silence and cool shadows, looked like abodes of the blest. The broad straight road leads to the principal city gate, a lofty and beautiful piece of architecture such as is never seen in America, and rarely in Europe. Through this stately portal, and from the thick and almost American forest, the traveller passing suddenly into the midst of the town, finds himself in the *Linden*, the Berlin Broadway. The architectural splendour of these European towns is a curiosity. The large buildings, on a gigantic scale, are loaded with elaborately-wrought ornaments, which the busy occupants of the new world have yet found little time to emulate. There is something soothing in the sight of these vast and venerable edifices, reared by the remote progenitors of their present tenants, inhabited in turn by hero, statesmen, by king and queen, by proud priest and haughty princess, and destined when all the thousands who swarm around them to-day, shall in their turn disappear, to become the arena of other events, to have their costly floors trodden by the feet of perhaps new Fredericks and Napoleons.

Noble buildings adorn the first entrance into Berlin. The Brandenburg gate leads through a broad, double avenue of trees which are continued into the town. The street for about half a mile is a continuation of beauty terminating in a view of almost unrivalled magnificence. King William the Third, the present venerable and much esteemed monarch, has been a true benefactor to his capital, and Paris has scarcely gained so much under Napoleon's half-oriental visions of improvement as Berlin, from the munificence of the sovereign. Some of the buildings for which the Berliners are indebted to him are not surpassed, if, indeed they are equalled in any other town in Europe. Several are said to be pure specimens of modern art. For a few days I was completely dazzled, and not even the sylvan attractions of the forest without the gate, charmed me from the contemplation of scenes which recalled ancient Rome. There is something delightfully poetic and picturesque, too, in the continental towns after the monotonous grandeur of London.

The environs in one respect merit admi-



ration, there being within a circuit of one or two miles five or six of what they call *parks*, but which better merit the appellation of *forests*, in each of which you may wander every day for a month, and always find something new. This paradise, however, is not without its evils, and one of the greatest is the dead level of the plain upon which the town stands. Water does not flow, and the stagnant gutters emit in many parts during the hot weather, an extremely offensive effluvia. The lovely winding streams, too, which struck us so agreeably on our first entrance, turn out to be artificial ponds, drained from the surrounding marshy land, and not particularly advantageous to the health in the dry days. Other drawbacks also there are, just enough to keep one from fancying himself in Eden. In the first place, the German cookery. The main ingredient of every dish is *fat*. In some form or other you are haunted with it. Your mutton chop comes swimming, and the chicken is drowned. Saturated potatoes, and drenched asparagus, even beef steak, instead of being brought in from the gridiron with its native sweetness, is pounded into cakes and put into a saucepan, and after being stewed out of its original character, is served up in a tureen of liquid grease. Indeed, in Berlin a dyspeptic might with great propriety, blow his brains out, preferring a sudden demise to the lingering penance of such proscribed dishes; yet, in truth, the people have the appearance of high health. To be totally deprived of eating, would be considered a sufficient misfortune; but sleeping has also become one of my prohibited enjoyments, from the noises of a German court and the formation of a German bed.

The German bed has, doubtless, formed a theme of lamentation among travellers since the days of Clovis and Charlemagne. We were shown into an immense barn of a room at Hamburg.

"And the bed room?" said I, to the host.

"It is this."

"And the bed?"

"They are there."

I looked, and on one side of the apartment, placed along the wall like sofas, and which I had at first mistaken for such, were two of those objects which pass here under the appellation of *beds*. Each one accommodates a single person. By no chance do you encounter a double one. Upon making some inquiry to that effect, I believe my informant thought my brain rather out of order. A German hotel-keeper would as soon think of a *night-cap* for two. By universal combination, these beds are, moreover, all too narrow and all too short, although the sturdy natives, who occupy them, are not wanting in longi-

tude, and have about the same breadth in comparison with a Frenchman as a turnip has with a radish. But short and narrow as the bed is, the covering is shorter and narrower; and the quilt, with an ingenuity worthy of the land of printing, powder, and protestantism, is constructed to reach down as far as the ankle, not quite up to the shoulder, and, in width, renders the old fashion of *tucking up* utterly ridiculous. It lies on the indignant traveller like a pancake. Now, does the inexperienced reader imagine that we are at the end of our description. He is mistaken. These evils are comparatively light. Upon getting into bed, with a mute hope that he may be able to arrange himself somehow or other for the night, the traveller is astonished, if not alarmed, at finding himself sinking down into a material not much more dense than water, until he arrives at a sitting posture, agreeable enough if he had placed himself there to hear an opera, or drive a tandem; but, for all purposes of repose and sleep, about as inadequate as the final attitude of a first-rate dancer in a ballet. It is a chance if the host does not send, at this moment, with an apology for not having placed the usual German coverlet, which, upon being produced, turns out to be, in fact, another enormous feather-bed, almost three feet thick, exceedingly light, stuffed with down, and considered by a good German, as, next to his pipe and beer, almost the most solid luxury imaginable. With what looks of wonder, mingled with contempt, do the *femmes de chambre*, in this part of the world, regard a foreigner who complains of their, to them, delicious beds, and who throw aside the eider-down coverlets, to demand, in broken German, for an *admay*, or *bed-deck*. Perhaps, the greatest curiosity of all are the pillows. There are three, if not four—and however my disbelieving reader may doubt my veracity, I assure them that, of these pillows, each one is not far from being equal in magnitude to the bed itself. For fear lest even these should not be high enough, there is placed, under all a triangular bolster, stuffed into the solidity of a pincushion, and which presents an inclined plane from the upper extremity of the bed, about half way to the other end. There is one other remark—but I am almost afraid to make it, although perfectly true. There is one other pillow, as large as any of the rest, which, as the most delicate attention of the respectful host—the last touch of luxury, to insure the fatigued traveller a delightful repose, is placed—beneath his feet.

If one could sleep in this sort of bed, the noises of the court would not permit it. The houses are built in a quadrangle, or hollow square, the line fronting the street form the drawing-rooms, and the other three look on the court. The entrance through a wide

arch is g  
carriages, f  
from their  
stands in  
about the  
pumps, th  
constructe  
nther not  
and all th  
handle wi  
like a flail  
loose, and  
such a w  
clatter in  
valve is a  
for the m  
give forth  
a donkey  
these nor  
till nearly  
two / ar  
instead  
wofully y  
ble house  
or eight  
be suppl  
hours.  
always  
the wash  
army of  
around,  
an exte  
buckets,  
place is  
At an  
a gentle  
sleeves  
the cour  
wedge,  
strikes  
other, a  
voice.  
bare-foot  
three s  
peace o  
pope o  
inquiri  
barrel.  
of selli  
ties an  
boxes.  
mornin  
eleven  
over y  
payer  
kicked  
drawn  
over y  
are sin  
life, y  
whistl  
you r  
found  
ment  
mock,

arch is generally a passage for one or two carriages, and some half dozen horses, to and from their stables in the rear. In the court stands invariably a huge pump, bearing about the proportion to ordinary American pumps, that Goliath did to little David, and constructed obviously with a view to produce rather noise than water. It is itself loose, and all the constituent parts are loose; the handle which consists of two pieces, jointed like a flail, is loose in its socket; the spout is loose, and all the members hang together in such a way as to make the greatest possible clatter in a given space. In addition, the valve is so arranged, as, on every application for the much-used and often-sought fluid, to give forth a loud sound, like the braying of a donkey. In the long summer days of these northern latitudes, it is not fairly night till nearly one o'clock, and the day dawns at two! and if the pump spouted forth *louis* instead of water, it could scarcely be more wofully worked. Each one of the interminable houses is occupied by from five to seven or eight separate families, of whom all are to be supplied with the desired element at all hours. The chambermaids are moreover always mopping and scrubbing, and then the washing is done in the family, and an army of broad bottomed tubs are ranged around, waiting to be filled, to say nothing of an extensive population of mere pitchers, buckets, pails, and decanters. The pump's place is no sinecure—it goes incessantly.

At an early hour, and until daylight ceases, a gentleman without any coat, and his shirt-sleeves rolled up to his elbow, comes up into the court with a large hammer and an iron wedge, which, with a deafening din, he strikes violently and rapidly against each other, screaming all the time in a discordant voice. He is followed by a bare-headed, bare-footed fellow, who runs up and gives three screams, just enough to destroy your peace of mind for the next three hours, and pops off again. The first is the cooper, inquiring whether you want hoops on tub or barrel. His successor follows the profession of selling sand, of which unheard of quantities are daily consumed for floors and spit-boxes. These visits are repeated from the morning till late into the day. At ten or eleven o'clock at night, just as you have sunk over your ears into the yielding bed, with a prayer against being smothered, and have kicked the pillow from under your feet, and drawn the *bed-deck*, for the sixteenth time over your shoulder;—just, perhaps, as you are sinking to sleep, despite all the cares of life, you are startled by a long, loud, shrill whistle beneath your window. For a time you religiously believe that some wretch has found out your nervousness, and what moment you retire to rest, and has come to mock, insult, and torment you. It is re-

peated three or four times; then there is a bustle, and the turning of keys and bolts, and the intrusive spirit of discord moves slowly off down the street, growing fainter and fainter, and at length dying away in the distance. You are awakened several times in the night by this same noise. It is the whistle of the watchman, or sort of police-officer, who comes round every night, at a certain hour, to close and lock the outer doors of the houses, and who goes whistling through the night, to know that he is not himself asleep, forgetting that, in so doing, he mercilessly breaks the repose of others. The sound which he produces is peculiarly saddening. It resembles the plaintive cry of some wild bird in the forest, that has lost its mate, or its young.

I have at once thrown together all the evils we have yet had to complain of in Germany. The prospect is fair for many enjoyments, which will soon make us forget them. Perhaps, after a longer residence, I shall discover that there are silent courts, and pumps which, like their constructors, make night a period of repose;—that there are bed-rooms not afflicted with the noises of a stable; and beds, where inexperienced persons, unused to the continent, may sleep in rectilinear and horizontal positions. I hope that what I shall hereafter write from these central regions of Europe, may be marked by toleration and forbearance; and that time and experience will wear out of me the malice and flippancy which generally inspire the first year or two of a young American traveller.

*New York Mirror.*

### The Gatherrr.

*Southey's Joan of Arc.*—Early in July, 1793, I happened to fall in conversation, at Oxford, with an old schoolfellow upon the story of Joan of Arc, and it then struck me as being singularly well adapted for a poem. The long vacation commenced immediately afterwards.—As soon as I reached home I formed the outline of a plan, and wrote about three hundred lines. The remainder of the month was passed in travelling, and I was too much engaged with new scenes and circumstances to proceed, even in thought, with what had been broken off. In August I went to visit my old schoolfellow, Mr. Grosvenor Bedford, who, at that time, resided with his parents at Brixton Causeway, about four miles on the Surrey side of the metropolis. There, the day after completing my nineteenth year, I resumed the undertaking, and there, in six weeks from that day, finished what I called an Epic Poem in twelve books.—*New Preface to "Joan of Arc," in the new edition of Southey's Poetical Works.*

**Sandwich Islands.**—Civilization, and religious and moral improvement are on force marches in these islands. In the *Sandwich Island Gazette*, No. 1, July 30, 1836, is recorded the semi-annual examination of the children of the Oahu Charity School, when their proficiency excited universal admiration. Some popular books, recently received from the United States, had been introduced; and although the children had not proceeded far in them, they showed that great attention had been bestowed on their studies. The girls too, exhibited creditable samples of needlework. After an examination in reading writing, spelling, geography, arithmetic, and singing, the children were addressed by their patron and pastor. — Before starting the *Sandwich Island Gazette*, the projector addressed a letter to King Kani Keaouli, requesting permission to work a press and publish a newspaper at Oahu, when the royal answer was as follows: "To Stephen D. Mackintosh. Honolulu, Oahu. I assent to the letter which you sent me. It affords me pleasure to see the works of other lands and things that are new. If I was there I should very much desire to see. I have said to Kinau, make Printing Presses. My thought is ended. Love to you and Reynolds. By King Kani Keaouli."—Among the manufactures of these Islands are noticed pressed oranges preserved in sugar, and some corned beef, praised as very superior. The latter will be especially valuable for ships' provision.—It is worthy of remark that the first paper in the above *Gazette* is an exquisite song, "Female Faith," by Miss London.

**Timber Required for a Ship of the Line.**—A regular seventy-four gun ship requires 3,000 oaks to build her. These trees would cover 100 acres of land for their growth, and would be nearly 100 years in coming to perfection. 3,000 oaks would timber 1,000 cottages for as many industrious families, who add to the national wealth.

**Changing Seats.**—(To the Editor.)—In the *Mirror*, vol. xxx., p. 376, is an article from the *Dublin General Advertiser*, headed "Changing Seats," pretending to explain a problem or question which is said to be found in many of our books of arithmetic, and which explanation appears to be incorrect. Eight persons, arranged together in any kind of line, would produce 40,320 changes of position; and nine persons instead of eight would produce the number 362,880, which is very easily demonstrated; but it may be different in Dublin. It is true that ten persons would make the number of changes 3,628,800, as is stated in the latter part of the article. But the writer further says, if the club of eight had consisted of one more person, it would have produced 443,520 changes; see how

the said writer has transposed it. Having by some means found the number 40,320; (although he has since lost it out of his paragraph,) see how he has managed it—by what he calls adding one more person, he has multiplied it by eleven, and has given it as the product of the permutation of nine:

$$40,320 \times 11 = 443,520. \quad \text{Thus: } \begin{array}{r} 40320 \\ 40320 \\ \hline 443520 \end{array}$$

*From a Correspondent.*

**Dovetailing.**—A fact, interesting to the antiquary, was elicited on taking out the wooden keys which closed a fissure in the base of the Luxor obelisk at Paris, to replace them with two other keys of copper. They are completely corroded by the action of the air and moisture, and there is every reason to believe that they were inserted when the obelisk was first put up at Thebes, and shows that, 4,000 years ago, the Egyptians were acquainted with the powerful means of uniting two pieces of wood now used, and called dove-tailing.—*Galignani.*

**A new Method of Playing the Violin.**—A Monsieur Isoard has constructed a violin to be played by a pair of bellows. The performer holds the instrument after the manner of the violoncello; his feet work the bellows, and his right hand directs the stream of air to the string requiring it.—*Musical World.*

**Burying in Cross Roads.**—The *British Magazine* gives the following explanation of the origin of this custom:—"It was usual to erect crosses at the junction of four cross-roads, as a place self-consecrated, according to the piety of the age; and it was not without a notion of indignity, but in a spirit of charity, that those excluded from holy rites, were buried at the crossing roads, as places *next in sanctity* to consecrated ground."

**Nephritic Complaints.**—Sitting continually near the fire is a hurtful practice to both old and young, and the habit of standing or sitting with the back to it is still more so. Obstinate nephritic complaints have been often brought on by this means.—*Curtis on Health.*

#### SEAT OF THE WAR IN CANADA.

The next Number of the *Mirror* will contain

A Picturesque Engraving

OF

NAVY ISLAND, UPPER CANADA.

And other Localities of the War.

LONDON: Printed and published by J. LIMBIRD, 143, Strand, (near Somerset House); and sold by all Booksellers and Newsmen.—Agent in PARIS, G. F. M. REYNOLDS, French, English, and American Library, 55, Rue Neuve St. Augustin.—In FRANCFORT, CHARLES JUGEL.